

Characterization of the Flavoprotein Domain of gp91phox Which Has NADPH Diaphorase Activity

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Received December 7, 2000; accepted January 4, 2001

A series of truncated forms of gp91phox were expressed in *Escherichia coli* in which the N-terminal hydrophobic transmembrane region was replaced with a portion of the highly soluble bacterial protein thioredoxin. TRX-gp91phox (306–569), which contains the putative FAD and NADPH binding sites, showed weak NADPH-dependent NBT (nitroblue tetrazolium) reductase activity, whereas TRX-gp91phox (304–423) and TRX-gp91phox (424–569) were inactive. Activity saturated at about a 1:1 molar ratio of FAD to TRX-gp91phox (306–569), and showed the same K_m for NADPH as that for superoxide generating activity by the intact enzyme. Activity was not inhibited by superoxide dismutase, indicating that it was not mediated by superoxide, but was blocked by an inhibitor of the respiratory burst oxidase, diphenylene iodonium. In the presence of Rac1, the cytosolic regulatory protein p67phox stimulated the NBT reductase activity, but p47phox had no effect. Truncated p67phox containing the activation domain (residues 199–210) [C.-H. Han, J.R. Freeman, T. Lee, S.A. Motalebi, and J.D. Lambeth (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* 273, 16663–16668] stimulated activity approximately 2-fold, whereas forms mutated or lacking this region failed to stimulate the activity. Our data indicate that: (i) TRX-gp91phox (306–569) contains binding sites for both pyridine and flavin nucleotides; (ii) this flavoprotein domain shows weak diaphorase activity; and (iii) the flavin-binding domain of gp91phox is the target of regulation by the activation domain of p67phox.

Key words: diaphorase activity, flavoprotein domain of gp91phox, NBT reductase activity.

Neutrophils and macrophages produce superoxide (O_2^-) and secondary reactive oxygen species (H_2O_2 , HOCl) that participate in the killing of phagocytized microorganisms (1–4). Superoxide generation is catalyzed by a multicomponent enzyme, the respiratory burst oxidase or NADPH oxidase. The catalytic moiety is a plasma membrane-associated flavocytochrome, b_{558} , which is composed of two subunits, gp91phox and p22phox (5–9). The flavocytochrome is inactive in resting cells, but upon cell stimulation, the flavocytochrome is activated by assembly with the cytosolic regulatory proteins p47phox, p67phox (10–13), and Rac (Rac2 and/or Rac1) (14–16).

The large subunit of the flavocytochrome, gp91phox has

a highly hydrophobic N-terminus that is predicted to contain 5–6 transmembrane helices (17–19) (Fig. 1). The flavocytochrome contains two hemes (20–22), which reside solely in gp91phox (23), as well as a single FAD (21, 24, 25). Various models (22, 23) suggest that the heme groups both reside within the hydrophobic N-terminal half of the molecule, and specific histidines within this region have been suggested to be heme ligands. The relatively hydrophilic C-terminal half of gp91phox is homologous to several flavoprotein dehydrogenases, particularly in putative FAD and NADPH binding sequences (20, 26, 27) (Fig. 1), and is therefore predicted to form an independently folding flavoprotein domain. Direct binding of native FAD and FAD analogs to flavocytochrome b_{558} has been demonstrated by several groups (21, 25, 26). Localization of the FAD binding region is predicted from studies using plasma membranes from a Chronic Granulomatous Disease patient with a point mutation at His-338, which showed low FAD content in the plasma membrane and failed to produce superoxide (28). The location of the NADPH binding site is not well established. Although gp91phox contains regions homologous to known NADPH binding sites (Fig. 1, hash marks), direct binding of NADPH or $NADP^+$ has not been demonstrated. Different affinity labeling analogs of NADPH show binding to either gp91phox (29, 30) or p67phox (31–33). The latter result has led to the suggestion that p67phox contains the binding site for pyridine nucleotide (or a portion thereof) and that activation might involve bringing this

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Abbreviations: TRX, thioredoxin; phox, phagocyte oxidase; NBT, nitroblue tetrazolium; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; GST, glutathione S-transferase; IPTG, isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside; GTP γ S, guanosine 5'-(γ -thio)triphosphate; DMSO, dimethylsulfoxide; DPI, diphenylene iodonium; DTT, dithiothreitol; INT, iodinitrotetrazolium violet 2-(4-iodophenyl)-3-(4-nitrophenyl)-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride; DCPIP, 2,6-dichlorophenol indophenol.

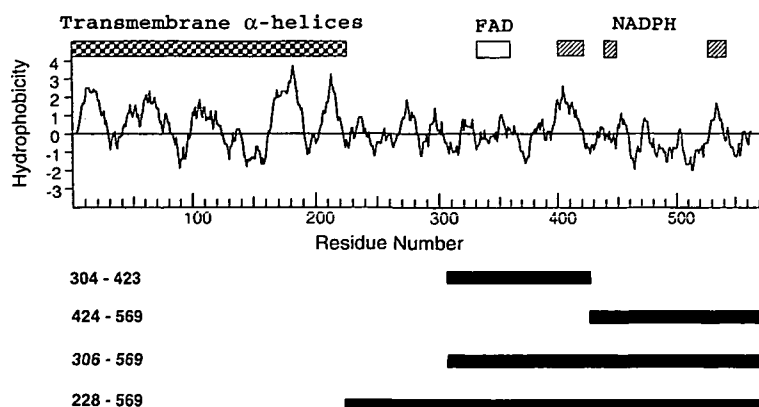


Fig. 1. Domain structure of gp91phox. Hydropathy of gp91phox as a function of residue number is shown. The extremely hydrophobic N-terminus of gp91phox is indicated by the checkered bar above the hydropathy plot, and this region is predicted to contain 5–6 transmembrane alpha helices. The putative FAD binding region (superior open bar) and regions implicated in NADPH binding (hatched bars) are indicated. A series of truncated forms indicated by the filled bars were constructed as N-terminal fusion proteins with thioredoxin (TRX).

binding site into juxtaposition with the flavin moiety on the flavocytochrome (31–33).

Individual roles for the cytosolic regulatory proteins in activating the NADPH oxidase have been proposed in recent studies. p47phox functions as a regulated adapter protein in a cell-free system; while it is not essential for cell-free NADPH oxidase activity, it increases the affinity of p67phox and Rac1 by about 2 orders of magnitude (34, 35). Both Rac and p47phox provide binding sites for p67phox, and Rac may function similarly to p47phox in binding and anchoring p67phox (*i.e.*, both may be regulated adapter proteins). We have proposed that it is p67phox that is the direct regulator of electron transfer within the flavocytochrome. An “activation domain” localized within amino acid residues 199–210 in p67phox is essential for cell-free NADPH oxidase activity (36), and a point mutation at residue 204 eliminates NADPH oxidase activity without affecting either the binding of p67phox to p47phox or Rac, or the assembly of the mutant p67phox in the NADPH oxidase complex (36). The target for this activation domain on p67phox is unknown, but we hypothesize that it is localized within the flavoprotein domain of the flavocytochrome (*vide infra*).

In this study, we have investigated the putative flavoprotein domain of gp91phox. The hydrophobic transmembrane heme-containing domain was eliminated and replaced by a highly soluble portion of bacterial thioredoxin. Using TRX-gp91phox (306–569), which is predicted to contain both FAD and NADPH binding sites, a weak NADPH diaphorase activity was detected and investigated. Our results indicate that this domain contains both the NADPH and FAD binding sites. In addition, the flavoprotein domain responds to regulation by p67phox and Rac, indicating the presence of interaction regions for one or both of these factors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Truncation Mutations—A series of truncated gp91phox clones was obtained by PCR using gp91phox DNA cloned in the pGEX-2T plasmid (Pharmacia Biotech) as the template. The forward primers (CGTGGATCCCGTGGGCAGACCGCAGAGAGT for 228–569, CGTGGATCCCTTTCAAAC-CATCGACCTA for 304–423, CGTGGATCCTGGTACAAA-TATTGCAATAAC for 424–569, and CGTGGATCCAAA-CCATCGAGCTACAGATG for 306–569) were designed to introduce a BamHI site (shown in boldface). The reverse

primers (CGTAAGCTTTTAGACTGACTTGAGAATGGATGC for 304–423, CGTAAGCTTTTAGAAGTTTTCCTTGTGAAAAT for 228–569, 306–569, and 424–569) were designed to introduce a HindIII site (shown in boldface) and a stop codon (underlined). These PCR products were purified with a PCR purification kit (Qiagen), and digested with BamHI and HindIII (GIBCO BRL). The digested samples were purified by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis, and extracted from agar by a Gel extraction kit (Qiagen). The purified DNA fragments were ligated into the BamHI and HindIII sites of pET-32a(+) vector (Novagen), and then transformed into BL21 (DE3). Transformants were selected from LB/Ampicillin plates, and plasmids were isolated from 2 ml cultures of transformants as described previously (34). The plasmids were digested with BamHI and HindIII, and were separated on 1% agarose to confirm the presence of the insert. The clones were sequenced to rule out unexpected mutations and to confirm the truncations.

Expression and Purification of Recombinant Proteins—Recombinant proteins p47phox and wild-type p67phox were expressed in insect cells (sf9 cell) and purified according to Uhlinger *et al.* (37, 38). Rac1 cDNA cloned in pGEX-2T was expressed in DH5a cells as a GST fusion form, purified by binding to glutathione-Sepharose (Pharmacia Biotech.), and cleaved with thrombin (Sigma) (39). Truncated and point mutated forms of p67phox-GST fusions were expressed and purified as above except that thrombin was not used and the proteins were eluted with 100 mM glutathione (Sigma) (36).

For preparation of TRX-tgp91phox fusion proteins, *E. coli* were grown at 37°C in LB media (1 liter) to an A_{550} of 0.4. IPTG (Sigma) (1 mM) was added and the cells were shaken at 37°C for 4 h. Except for the 424–569 form, the truncated forms of gp91phox were initially insoluble. These were solubilized and renatured according to a modification of the method of Gentz *et al.* (40). Cells were pelleted by centrifuging at 4,500 ×g for 15 min, resuspended in 6 M guanidine HCl (GIBCO BRL), pH 7.8, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 500 mM NaCl, and incubated on ice for 1 h. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 30,000 ×g for 20 min. The supernatant was applied to a nickel chelate affinity resin (ProBond, Invitrogen), which was washed 3 times with several volumes of wash buffer (8 M urea, 500 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.8). The protein was eluted with the same buffer containing 500 mM imidazole (Sigma). Dithiothreitol (DTT, Sigma) (2 mM) was added and samples were dialyzed for 5 h against a sequential series of buffers con-

taining 2 mM DTT plus 1 M urea, 0.2 M urea, and then no urea. DTT was removed after the final step by dialysis against 500 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.8. Protein concentration was determined according to Bradford (41) and samples were stored at -80°C .

NBT Reductase Activity Assay—NBT reductase activity was determined using a Thermomax Kinetic Microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Menlo Park, CA). Expressed forms of gp91phox were preincubated in most experiments with an equimolar ratio of FAD (Sigma) (or, in the case of FAD titration, with varying ratios of FAD/protein) for 16 h at 4°C before use. The incubation contained 4 μM of FAD-preloaded TRX-gp91phox (306–569) and combinations of cytosolic regulatory proteins [4.8 μM p67phox, 4.2 μM p47phox, and/or 5.4 μM Rac1, which had been preloaded with GTP- γS (Sigma) (39), all in a 50 μl volume of assay buffer (100 mM KCl, 3 mM NaCl, 4 mM MgCl_2 , 1 mM EGTA, and 10 mM PIPES, pH 7.0). Diphenylene iodonium (DPI, Fluka) was prepared as a 1 mM stock solution in DMSO, and working solutions were prepared by dilution into assay buffer. An extinction coefficient of $15.1 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 264 nm was used to determine concentration (42). Three 10 μl aliquots of each reaction mixture were transferred to 96-well assay plates and preincubated for 5 min at 25°C . Assay buffer (250 μl) containing 200 μM NADPH (Sigma) and 200 μM NBT (Sigma) was added to each well. NBT reduction was quantified by monitoring absorbance at 595 nm using an extinction coefficient of $12.6 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 595 nm (43).

Calculation of Dissociation Constants (K_d)—The K_d value for the binding of FAD to truncated gp91phox (306–569) was obtained using the following equation, modified from (44),

$$\Delta v = \Delta V_{\max} \left[\frac{((K_d + L_T + E_T) - ((K_d + L_T + E_T)^2 - 4L_T E_T)^{1/2})}{2E_T} \right] \quad (1)$$

where Δv is the increase in the initial rate produced by a given concentration of FAD, ΔV_{\max} is the maximal velocity change at infinite (extrapolated) FAD, K_d is the dissociation constant, L_T is the concentration of FAD, and E_T is the total concentration of truncated gp91phox (306–569). Sigma plot was used to generate a nonlinear least squares fit of the data, solving for K_d and ΔV_{\max} , constraining the fit to the actual concentration of TRX-gp91phox (306–569).

RESULTS

Expression of TRX-Fusion Forms of Truncated gp91phox—The expression strategy was designed based on the idea that the C-terminal half of gp91phox is relatively hydrophilic, and that this domain will fold independently. We initially constructed a series of truncated mutants as N-terminal GST fusion proteins and His₆ fusions. Those were: gp91phox (190–569), (228–569), (304–569), (424–569), and (304–423). All constructs except for gp91phox (190–569), which contains a large hydrophobic segment, were expressed at high levels in *E. coli*. However, neither GST nor His₆ fusion forms were soluble, and denaturation/renaturation methods (vide infra) failed to generate soluble products.

In contrast, the thioredoxin fused forms of truncated gp91phox [TRX-gp91phox (304–423), TRX-gp91phox (424–569), and TRX-gp91phox (306–569)] were successfully ex-

pressed and readily solubilized using an urea unfolding/refolding method (Fig. 2). TRX-gp91phox (228–569) was also expressed, but it was not possible to solubilize this form. The largest form of soluble protein, TRX-gp91phox (306–569), is predicted based on sequence homology to contain binding sites for both FAD and NADPH (Fig. 1). The highly soluble TRX domain reportedly improves the solubility of proteins to which it is fused (45), and the vector also encodes a hexa histidine that allows purification under denaturing conditions on a Ni²⁺-chelate affinity matrix. The proteins were purified under denaturing conditions, since TRX-gp91phox (304–423) and TRX-gp91phox (306–569) in particular were poorly soluble and not retained on a His₆ matrix under non-denaturing conditions, despite the fact that they were highly expressed. In contrast, TRX-gp91phox (424–569) was highly expressed and showed good recovery in both the presence and absence of 8 M urea. All purified proteins corresponded in size to their predicted molecular weights on SDS-PAGE (Fig. 2).

Physical Properties of Expressed Proteins—Although the flavoprotein domains of gp91phox [TRX-gp91phox (304–423), TRX-gp91phox (424–569), and TRX-gp91phox (306–569)] were obtained in “soluble” forms showing no apparent turbidity, they appeared to be aggregates of 4 or more monomers. The proteins preincubated with 0.1 mM FAD were chromatographed on a Sephacryl S-300 column equilibrated with 20 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.4, containing 50 mM NaCl. All proteins eluted at or near the void volume (MW \geq 200 kDa). On SDS-PAGE in the absence of DTT, they migrated as large molecular size (apparent size greater than 106 kDa) smeared bands (data not shown). However, when the proteins were treated with SDS sample buffer containing 80 mM DTT, they showed the correct predicted molecular masses of 32, 34.5, and 48 kDa, respectively, on a 12% SDS-PAGE gel (Fig. 2). These results imply that the recombinant gp91phox exists in a polymerized

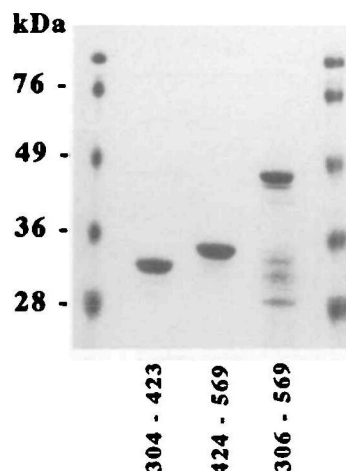


Fig. 2. SDS-PAGE of the expressed TRX-fusion forms of truncated gp91phox. The TRX-(His)₆-fusion forms of truncated gp91phox were expressed in *E. coli* and purified on a Ni²⁺-chelating column as described in “MATERIALS AND METHODS.” The purified proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE in a 12% (w/v) polyacrylamide gel, and visualized by Coomassie-Blue staining. The apparent molecular sizes of the TRX fusion forms of gp91phox (304–423), gp91phox (424–569), and gp91phox (306–569) were 32, 34.5, and 48 kDa respectively.

state in ordinary buffer even in the presence of detergent unless a reducing agent is added, suggesting that there might be intermolecular disulfide bridges. However, DTT interfered with the diaphorase assays (below) and was therefore not included.

NADPH-Dependent Diaphorase Activities of TRX-gp91phox (306–569)—Table I shows the activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569) reconstituted with excess FAD in the presence or absence of cytosolic factors using various artificial electron acceptors. NBT reduction produced the highest activity among several electron acceptors investigated. Interestingly, both NBT and INT reduction rates were increased by the addition of the cytosolic regulatory proteins p67phox, p47phox, and Rac1 (GTP γ S). The maximal rate of NBT reduction at saturating FAD concentration was low, about 4 electrons/min/molecule of protein. The NBT reduc-

TABLE I. Diaphorase activities of TRX-gp91phox (306–569) in the presence and absence of cytosolic factors.

Electron acceptor	Rate (nmol reduced/min/mg of gp91phox)	
	(-)	(+)
Cytochrome <i>c</i>	6.51 \pm 0.88	8.85 \pm 0.22
NBT	10.23 \pm 0.65	19.91 \pm 1.70
INT	1.70 \pm 0.27	6.78 \pm 0.26
Ferricyanide	0	0
DCPIP	0	0

The assay for NADPH diaphorase activity was carried out as described in "MATERIALS AND METHODS." The truncated gp91phox was preincubated with (+) or without (-) cytosolic factors. The assay buffer contained 0.2 mM of each electron acceptor and the reaction was started by adding 0.2 mM NADPH. The molar extinction coefficients used for cytochrome *c*, NBT, INT, ferricyanide and DCPIP were 21.1 at 550 nm (60), 12.6 at 595 nm (43), 11.0 at 500 nm (52), 1.01 at 420 nm (61), and 21.0 mM $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$ at 600 nm (62), respectively. Values shown are the average \pm SEM of three determinations. For NBT reduction, it was assumed for convenience that the extinction change represented a complete 4-electron reduction, although it should be recognized that this need not be the case for this complicated electron acceptor.

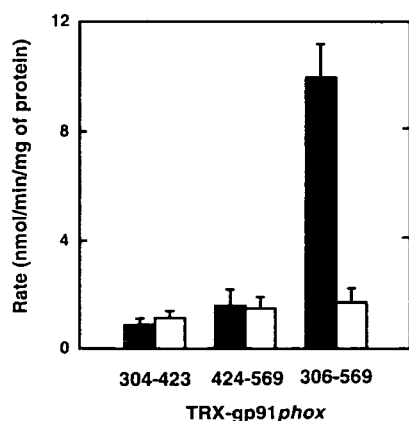


Fig. 3. NADPH-dependent NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox. Each form of TRX-gp91phox was preincubated with an equimolar amount of FAD for 16 h at 4°C as described in "MATERIALS AND METHODS." NBT reductase activity was measured using 4 μ M of each protein in a volume of 50 μ l. The reaction was initiated by the addition of 10 μ l of this mixture to a 240 μ l solution containing 0.2 mM of NBT in the presence (filled bars) or absence (open bars) of 0.2 mM NADPH. Error bars show the standard error of the mean ($n = 3$).

tase activity of the shorter gp91phox fragments was also investigated under the same conditions in the presence and absence of NADPH. The longest fusion protein, TRX-gp91phox (306–569), showed NADPH-dependent activity (Fig. 3) as above. However, the shorter forms, TRX-gp91phox (304–423) and TRX-gp91phox (424–569), showed only background NBT reductase activity (Fig. 3). The K_m for NADPH in the longest protein was determined to be 45 μ M (Fig. 4) in the absence of cytosolic factors. This value is similar to the K_m for NADPH (~50 μ M) observed in the intact phagocyte NADPH oxidase (30). TRX-gp91phox (306–569) shows a specificity for NADPH over NADH due to K_m effects but not to V_{max} . The K_m and V_{max} values were not affected by superoxide dismutase added to the assay medium, indicating that NBT reduction is not brought about by superoxide anion.

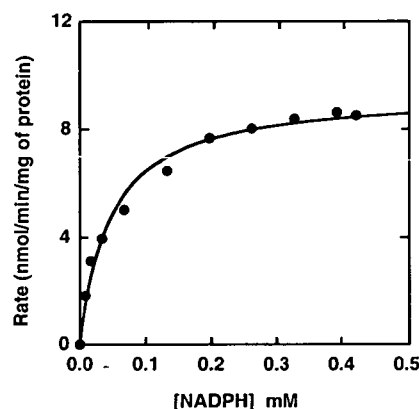


Fig. 4. NADPH concentration dependence of the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). The assay conditions were as described in the legend to Fig. 3, except that the reaction was initiated by the addition of 10 μ l of the activation mixture to a 240 μ l solution containing 0.2 mM of NBT and the indicated concentrations of NADPH.

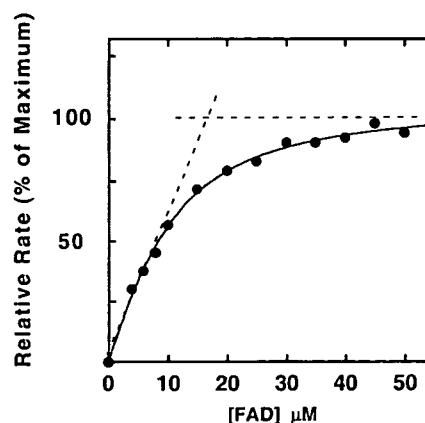


Fig. 5. FAD concentration dependence of the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). TRX-gp91phox (306–569) (20 μ M) was preincubated with varying concentrations of FAD for 16 h at 4°C as indicated. NBT reduction of the FAD-reconstituted preparations was measured as described in "MATERIALS AND METHODS" using 4 μ M TRX-gp91phox (306–569) in a 50 μ l volume. The reaction was initiated by the addition of 10 μ l of this mixture to a 240 μ l of reaction mixture containing 0.2 mM each of NADPH and NBT.

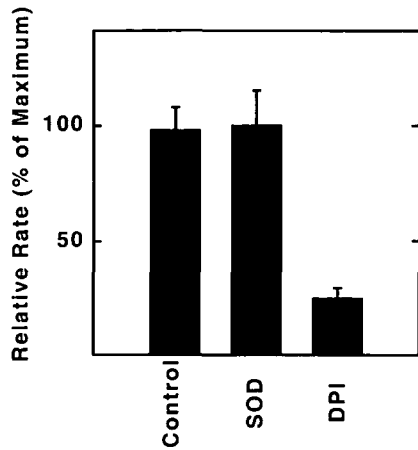


Fig. 6. Inhibition of the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). NBT reduction was measured using 4 μ M of FAD-preloaded TRX-gp91phox (306–569) in a 50 μ l volume in the presence or absence of either 10 units superoxide dismutase (SOD) or 10 μ M diphenylene iodonium (DPI). The reaction was initiated by the addition of 10 μ l of this mixture to 240 μ l of reaction buffer containing 0.2 mM each of NADPH and NBT. Error bars show the standard error of the mean ($n = 3$).

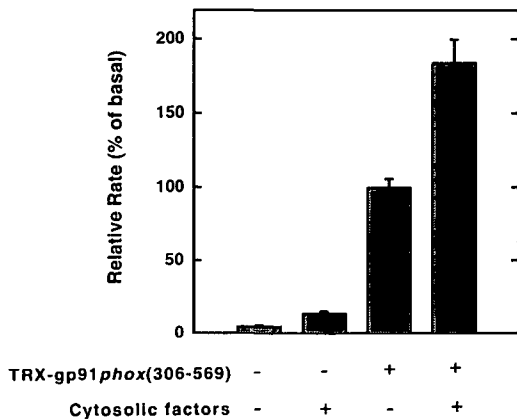


Fig. 7. Effects of cytosolic factors on the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). TRX-gp91phox (306–569) (20 μ M) was preincubated with 20 μ M of FAD for 16 h at 4°C before use. NBT reduction was measured using 4 μ M of FAD preloaded TRX-gp91phox (306–569) in a volume of 50 μ l in the presence or absence of the cytosolic factors (4.8 μ M p67phox, 4.2 μ M p47phox, 5.4 μ M Rac1). The reaction was initiated by the addition of 10 μ l of this mixture to a 240 μ l solution containing NADPH (0.2 mM) and NBT (0.2 mM). Error bars show the standard error of the mean ($n = 3$).

FAD-Dependence of NADPH-NBT Reductase Activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569)—The activity was dependent on FAD (Fig. 5), and increased more or less linearly up to a FAD/protein ratio of approximately 0.8:1, approaching saturation thereafter. Curve fitting revealed an apparent K_d of 740 nM for the binding of a single FAD to the protein. The relatively tight binding of FAD and the “normal” K_m for NADPH suggest that the flavoprotein domain of TRX-gp91phox (306–569) achieves a more-or-less native structure following expression and renaturation. The observation of a stoichiometry of FAD binding to protein near 1:1 suggests that despite its polymeric state, most of the flavoprotein domain is in an active form.

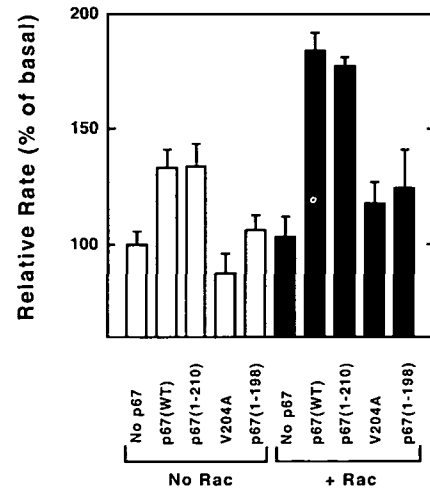


Fig. 8. Effects of mutation/truncation in the activation domain of p67phox on the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). The assay conditions were as described in the legend to Fig. 7, except that mutant forms of p67phox (4.8 μ M) were used with (filled bars) or without (open bars) Rac1 (5.4 μ M). Error bars show the standard error of the mean ($n = 3$).

Inhibition of NADPH-NBT Reductase Activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569)—NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569) was not inhibited by superoxide dismutase (Fig. 6), indicating that NBT reduction is not mediated by superoxide. Thus, it seems likely that NBT accepts electrons directly from the reduced FAD. DPI, a known inhibitor of NADPH-dependent superoxide generation by the intact phagocyte oxidase (44), blocked NADPH-dependent NBT reduction (approximately 70%). As mentioned above, since the truncate gp91phox is very aggregative in the assay medium, DPI does not appear to be stringently bound to a flavin-occupied catalytic center, resulting in its incomplete inhibitory effect.

Effects of Cytosolic Regulatory Factors on the NBT Reductase Activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569)—As shown in Table I and Fig. 7, the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91 (306–569) increased nearly 2-fold in the presence of the cytosolic regulatory proteins p47phox, p67phox, and Rac1 (GTP γ S). Activity was dependent upon TRX-gp91phox (306–569), and cytosolic factors alone showed almost no activity. Thus, one or more cytosolic regulatory proteins can stimulate the NBT reductase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569). To explore further the requirement for cytosolic factors, the activity was measured in the presence of combinations of cytosolic factors. Elimination of p47phox had no effect on NBT reductase activity (not shown). As shown in Fig. 8, p67phox stimulated the activity in the absence of other cytosolic factors. Rac alone had little or no stimulatory effect, but increased the magnitude of the stimulation by p67phox (Fig. 8).

The effect of the “activation domain” of p67phox on NBT reductase activity of the flavoprotein domain was also investigated. p67phox (1–210), which contains the activation domain, stimulated activity as well as the wild type p67phox. However, p67phox (1–198), which lacks the activation domain, was ineffective. Similarly, p67phox (V204A), which contains a point mutation in the activation domain and is completely inactive in the cell-free NADPH-oxidase

assay (36), is also ineffective in stimulating diaphorase activity (Fig. 8).

DISCUSSION

In the previous paper (20), the concentration of FAD in the membranes of resting neutrophils was reported to be very similar to that in activated cells, indicating that the ratio of FAD/heme = 1:2 remained fairly constant. In addition, in the cell-free NADPH oxidase system, flavinated flavocytochrome b_{558} showed almost the same turnover number of superoxide generation as that observed in activated membranes (20, 26). On the other hand, it has been demonstrated that p67phox contains the NADPH-binding site of NADPH oxidase that is essential for catalytic activity. According to these reports, it is suggested that the active site of the oxidase is distributed between p67phox and gp91phox that are only brought together when the enzyme is activated (31–33). The recombinant p67phox we prepared, however, contained little or no FAD and its diaphorase activity was very low in the presence and absence of flavin, suggesting that the protein is unlikely to have the catalytic properties of NADPH dehydrogenase. In view of these results, we support the idea that flavocytochrome b_{558} is only the redox component, possessing NADPH, FAD and 2 heme-binding domains, and that p67phox regulates electron flow between the redox centers in the flavocytochrome.

Based on previous models, the globular portion of the β subunit of flavocytochrome b_{558} is largely exposed to the solvent and accessible to NADPH from the cytoplasm (46). Several flavin-dependent reductases possess a β -stranded barrel structure for FAD binding (47, 48). The sequence alignment of the FAD binding domain of gp91phox and the ferredoxin-NADP⁺ reductase family has shown that amino acid residues 279–400 of gp91phox are homologous to a general FAD binding structure (28). The HPFT motif (residues 338–341) in this structure is predicted to interact directly with FAD in the flavocytochrome b_{558} model (46), and is conserved in human, porcine, and mouse gp91phox (49, 50). The aim of this study was to express a flavoprotein-homology domain of flavocytochrome b_{558} lacking the transmembrane heme-binding regions, and to investigate its catalytic properties. gp91phox (306–569) includes most of the predicted β -stranded barrel structure, including the HPFT motif, and also contains regions that are predicted to form the NADPH binding site (Fig. 1). This structure was successfully expressed as a TRX fusion protein and showed low catalytic activity (NBT and INT reductase activities). The low diaphorase activity may either be an intrinsic property of the flavoprotein domain, or may indicate that the expressed flavoprotein is catalytically inefficient due to its cross-linked nature or the absence of an appropriate conformation. In a previous study, the anaerobic rate of FAD reduction was less than 1% of the aerobic rate (51), and the authors proposed that oxygen induces a conformation that favors flavin reduction. Since there is no heme in TRX-gp91phox (306–569), such conformational regulation may not be possible. The intact flavocytochrome also catalyzes a low rate of INT reduction (52), but this rate is still approximately 100–200-fold higher than that seen in the present study, suggesting either a less efficient electron transfer in the expressed flavoprotein domain, or additional electron transfer mechanisms in the intact cytochrome. The

low activity may make this preparation of limited utility for mechanistic studies, but the model system appears to be adequate for drawing a number of important conclusions.

The diaphorase activity of TRX-gp91phox (306–569) was found to be dependent upon FAD, which showed a relatively lower binding affinity ($K_d = 740$ nM) compared with 50 nM for the native enzyme (24). The expressed domain also showed a K_m for NADPH of about 50 μ M, the same value seen for the NADPH-superoxide generating activity of the intact respiratory burst oxidase. These data indicate that the expressed, renatured protein forms a reasonably intact structure, sufficient to bind both NADPH and FAD and to catalyze a diaphorase activity, albeit at a very low rate. These data demonstrate unequivocally that this domain contains binding sites for both an NADPH and a FAD. Although it is possible that p67phox also contains a binding site for NADPH, as was recently proposed (31–33), these data do not support the involvement of such a site in catalysis.

Importantly, these studies also reveal that the flavoprotein domain is the target of regulation by p67phox. Previously, we showed that an activation domain in p67phox (residues 199–210) is essential for NADPH-oxidase activation in a cell-free system (36). Truncated forms of p67phox lacking this region or a form containing a single mutation at residue 204 showed no ability to activate the oxidase, despite the fact that these forms bound normally to oxidase components and assembled normally as part of the oxidase complex under cell-free activation conditions. As shown in Fig. 8, these same alterations in the activation domain eliminated the ability of p67phox to activate the NBT-reductase activity of the flavoprotein domain. These data indicate that the target of the activation domain of p67phox resides within the flavoprotein domain of gp91phox. These data provide a physical explanation for the data indicating that the activation domain of p67phox controls the reduction of FAD by NADPH (53). Interestingly, this study shows that p67phox has little or no effect on NADPH binding, but the data are most consistent with the regulation of electron/hydride transfer from NADPH to FAD.

These studies fail to provide evidence for an effect of p47phox on regulation at the level of the flavoprotein domain. We have previously shown that p47phox is not essential for NADPH-dependent superoxide generation by the intact respiratory burst oxidase under cell-free conditions (34). Its role was proposed to be to act as a regulated adapter protein, since its effect was to enhance the affinity of p67phox and Rac by up to 100-fold. To our knowledge, p47phox binding to the flavoprotein domain has not been directly demonstrated (54, 55), although controversial evidence has implicated the C-terminus of gp91phox in such an interaction (56). Binding sites for p47phox on both p22phox and the N-terminus of gp91phox (residues 86–102, not present in the flavoprotein domain) have been documented (57), and may be sufficient for the docking of this cytosolic component. Although Rac does not directly activate the flavoprotein domain, a role for Rac is implied by the present studies, since Rac enhances the effect of p67phox. Direct binding of Rac to p67phox via the “effector region” on Rac (residues 26–45) has been demonstrated (58), and Rac is known to bind to the plasma membrane through its C-terminus (39). A third region on Rac, the insert region (residues 124–135), is essential for optimal

activity, and is involved in protein-protein interactions within the assembled oxidase (58, 59); this region has been proposed to bind to the cytochrome, although this has not yet been demonstrated directly. Rac may act synergistically with p67phox in activating the diaphorase activity of the flavoprotein domain either by binding to p67phox, producing an active conformation, or by binding simultaneously to both p67phox and the flavoprotein domain of gp91phox. The present studies do not distinguish between these possibilities, but indicate that Rac somehow synergizes with p67phox to activate the flavoprotein domain of gp91phox. The ability of p67phox to activate NBT reductase activity in the absence of Rac, however, indicates that p67phox must interact directly with the flavoprotein domain, and that it is likely to be the primary regulatory element in this complex and elegant system.

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